CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Research is a continuous process, which has some continuity with earlier information. So, the knowledge congregated in the earlier time should be consolidated to keep it on record for further use. Review of literature facilitates us to understand the problem very clearly. This chapter focuses on review of literature pertaining to variable studied such as ‘self-concept, anxiety, adjustment and home environment’. Earlier majority of research done on self-concept, anxiety and adjustment that reflects importance of quality of home environment among children of working women and housewives. Now the ongoing discussion will pertain to the studies related to the predictor and criterion variables.

**Self-Concept**

In infancy, children acquired and organized information about themselves as a way to enable them to understand the relationship between the self and their social world. Self-concept is children’s attitude towards and belief about themselves. A number of factors determine a person’s self-concept—physical appearance, work habits, athletics abilities or abilities as a parent or mate. People develop a sense of themselves by combining aspects of their family, marital, occupational, recreational, sexual and gender roles. Self-concept research has shown that each individual knows about himself and how he sees himself derives from the way in which he has been and is considered by others. If one’s own self is falsely assessed this leads to difficulties and conflicts with one’s fellows and the environment. The major researches conducted by the investigators in the field of self-concept are presented below.

Viviana et al. (1985) studied the relationship between aspects of child rearing and adolescent self-concept. Analysis of variance indicated that high self esteem adolescents perceived their parents as more accepting, using less psychological control,
and not regulating the adolescent’s behaviour. The result supported the connection that optimal self-concept development allows the adolescent autonomy and the opportunity to learn competencies.

James et al. (1991) examined relationship between adolescent’s perception of their family and school environment and measures of their creativity, morality and self-concept. Data were collected from 312 (16 years old) Australian students. The results indicated that, adolescent self-concept and morality have moderate associations and more modest relationships with their perception of school environment, and adolescent creativity has modest association with their perceptions of both family and school environment.

Leung and Leung (1992) conducted a study to see the influence of self-concept and relationships with parents and school on life satisfaction of children. Data were collected from 1156 Chinese school’s children. In this study, self-concept was studied in totality as well as in its four dimensions namely, academic ability, social ability, physical ability, and physical appearance. Results showed that all dimensions of self-concept measures are correlated with life satisfaction, but the strongest correlation was found between general self-concept and life satisfaction.

Mzobanzi et al. (1996) examined the relationship among dimensions of family and school social environment and various aspects of adolescent’s self-concept. A total of 1192 secondary school students participated in the study. Result indicated that perceived behaviour were associated with relation, family general school, physical appearance, emotional stability, health and global self-concept. In comparison, it was found that the relationship with perceived parental behaviour was stronger predictor of self-concept than that of perceived teacher behaviour.
Dekovic et al. (1997) examined the link between the parent children relationship and the adolescent’s relationship with peers. Finding showed that the adolescent’s self-concept serves as a mediating role in the relationship between maternal child rearing style and involvement with peers. The mediating role of self-concept was greatest for maternal acceptance. The results suggested that a positive self-concept and warm supportive parenting each contribute a unique variance to satisfactory peer relations.

Baharudin et al. (1998) investigated factors related to the quality of home environment and children’s achievement. The sample comprised of 898 mothers and their 6-8 years old children. Results revealed mothers who provided better quality of the home environment had higher levels of education, intelligence and self esteem. Mothers with higher family incomes, fewer children and higher marital quality provided more supportive home environment. In addition, age and gender of the children were significantly related to the quality of home environment. Moreover, analysis indicated that quality of home environment that mother provided was related to their children’s achievement.

Marjoribanks et al. (1998) studied family correlates of South African students self concept. A regression surface analysis revealed that family social status (FSS) and perception of proximal family environment (PFE) combined to have large association with students’ general self-concept and small to medium associations with scores on measures of specific self-concept. PFE is related more strongly to self-concept scores than in FSS. There are complex interaction and curvilinear relationships between family and self-concept scores.

Mboya (1998) investigated gender differences in perceived parental behaviour and self-concept. The sample consisted of 496 boys and girls. Results revealed that
family relationship has a significant influence on the development of self-concept of adolescents.

Deka et al. (1998) investigated the impact of maternal employment on different indices of parental behaviour and self-concept of adolescents belonging to the upper middle class Indian families. Results revealed that there is a significant difference in the child rearing quality of employed vs. non employed mothers. Maternal employment had no impact on self-concept of adolescent where as perceived parental warmth and parental conflict did affect the self-concept.

Sing and Kit-Ling (2000) examined the relationships between parents’ evaluation of their children and agreement between parental evaluation and children’s self evaluation in four self-concept domains i.e., academic, physical, social, and general. A sample comprised of 974 families each consisting of father, mother and children of primary grades. Results revealed that significant correlation between maternal evaluation and children’s self-concept. There was a significant relationship between parent-parent agreement and children’s self-concept than those with parent who agreed positively. Across six and seven grade, academic self-concept was the domain in which parental evaluation’s impact was the greatest.

Rebecca et al. (2000) examined the relationship between multi dimensional self-concepts and family structure of 815 (9-19 years) old adolescents and preadolescents children. Results indicated that the total self-concept of the students from single parents families were significantly lower scores of students from intact families. Family self-concept of students from reconstituted families was significantly lower than students from intact families.
Sink et al. (2000) examined the relationships among family environment, depression and self-concept of a sample of 2706 adolescents. Result showed that all the three domains of family environment (relationship, personal growth and system maintains) correlated strongly and positively with four domain of self-concept (academic, appearance, social and general). Both the relationship domains and system maintains domain correlate more strongly than the personal growth maintain with the self-concept domains. Regression analysis showed that family relationship was most predictive to various aspects of depression and self-concept. It was concluded that a cohesive, orderly and achieving family environment is conductive to more positive development in adolescents, in terms of lower depression and higher self-concept.

Doyal et al. (2000) studied child attachment security, self-concept and associations with mother and father attachment style and marital quality. The sample consisted of 329 families of 9-14 years old children. Results indicated that mothers’ anxious attachment style uniquely predicted children’s insecure attachment to both mother and father. In turn, association to child and mother attachment with specific self-concept domain differed from those child and father attachment with self-concept across age.

Thornton et al. (2001) Used data from a 31-year panel study; they evaluated both the reliability of measurement of family attitudes, relationships, and self-concepts and the stability of these variables across time. They also compared the reliability of measurement and the stability of variables across time in these domains of family life with the reliability and stability of behavioural dimensions. Their results provided considerable support for the hypothesis that family relationships, attitudes, and self-concepts can be measured reliably. They also demonstrated that self-concepts and
family relationships and attitudes have high levels of stability across significant periods of time, and that these are comparable to those for the behavioural indicators they examined.

Arundhati and Sangita (2002) examined the effect of mother disciplinary practices on self-concept and adjustment among 150 children age ranged from 12 to 14 years. Whole sample divided into three sub groups viz., power assertion, love withdrawal and induction type of disciplinary practices as assessed by the help of an interview schedule. Results of the findings revealed that induction type of disciplinary practice were best of parenting and subjects who had experienced this type of practices had high levels of self-concept as well as adjustment.

Caplan et al. (2002) investigated the effects of self-concept and family environment on psychosocial adjustment to early entrance college students. 162 early entrance college students (aged 14-17 years) were taken as the sample of the study. Results showed that a combination of self-concept and family environment variables predicted psychosocial adjustment. Family cohesion, conflict, expressiveness, and overall self-concept predicted higher SACQ scores.

Christic et al. (2003) examined the consequences of inter-parental discord and child’s self-concept bullying behaviour. The objective of this research was to explore the relationship between inter-parental discord and child’s self-concept. The sample comprised of elementary and middle school children. The finding of this research was that child’s self-concept mediates the effect of inter-parental discord on bullying behaviour.

Ariel et al. (2005) examined single mothers’ employment dynamics and adolescents’ well being, used the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth age range
from 14 to 16 years. Results suggested that children whose mothers continuously employed in good job without regaining employment show decline in self-concept but children whose mothers are continuously employed in a bad job shown an increased likelihood of grade repetition, and those whose mothers are either persistently unemployed or loss more than one job show an increased likelihood of school dropout of children.

Sillers et al. (2005) examined communication and parent adolescent understanding including understanding about family conflict, adolescent self-concept and immediate through (or empathic accuracy). Parental understanding of the children’s self-concept was associated with frequent and open communication, high parent child relationship satisfaction and strong child self-concept. Parental understanding of self conflict perceptions was associated with high conformity and low relationship satisfaction. Parental understanding of the immediate thoughts of children was quite low and was not consistently related to communication, relationship satisfaction or child self-concept.

Gibson and Jefferson (2006) investigated self-concept of adolescents was affected by their relationship with family, peers, mentors and community group. In this study, the characteristics of these relationships are examined as well as the perception of parental involvement. The effect of perceived parental involvement and the use of growth-fostering relationships on self-concept were examined using 78 adolescents who were participating in GEAR UP (Gaining Early Awareness of Readiness for Undergraduate Programs). Results support the influence of family, peers, mentors, and involvement in community groups on adolescent self-concept.
Sandra et al. (2006) examined mother and child relationship as a moderator of the relationship between family educational involvement and child achievement. Sample consisted of 175 kindergartners’ students with their mothers from low income families. Results revealed that higher maternal school involvement in their children’s education was related to higher child achievement, if mothers and children shared a warm relationship.

Hangal et al. (2007) studied self concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of the adolescent children of employed mothers and homemakers. The sample comprised of 75 adolescent of employed mother and 75 adolescent of homemakers, studying class VIIIth and IXth standard in Hubli, Dharwad cities of North Karnataka. The result revealed that the adolescent children of homemaker have significantly higher self-concept. It was also noticed that the children of employed mothers have high emotional maturity and female children of employed mother are highly achievement oriented.

Diane et al. (2008) assessed whether the stresses associated with parenting a child are indirectly related to adolescent self-concept through parenting behaviour. Mothers’ and fathers’ parenting stress was related to children’ perception of acceptance and psychologically controlling behaviour and psychologically controlled behaviour (and lax control for fathers) was related to adolescent self-concept. They further examined that parenting stress was related to specific domain of self-concept in adolescence. Parenting stress appears to exert its effect on early adolescent self-concept indirectly through perceived parenting behaviour.

Jagpreet et al. (2009) studied home environment and academic achievement as correlates of self-concept among adolescents. The result of study revealed self-concept
to be positively correlated with academic achievement, though not significantly. A significant positive relationship of home environment component of protectiveness, conformity reward and nurturance with self-concept is revealed. However, the correlation of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home environment is significantly negatives with self-concept among adolescents.

Nishikawal et al. (2010) studied the influence of perceived parental rearing on adolescent self-concept and internalising and externalising problems. About 193 high school students completed a set of self report questionnaire. Analysis showed that insecure attachments (avoidant and ambivalent) and rejection from parents were predictors of internalising and externalising problems among boys, while all dysfunctional parenting (rejection, overprotection and anxious rearing) were the determinants among girls. Non academic self-concept (social, emotional and physical) was predictors of internalising and externalising problems as greater for girls than boys.

Chatterji et al. (2011) examined the effects of maternal employment on family well-being, used longitudinal data from the NICHD. First they estimated the effects of maternal employment on these outcomes measured when children are 6 months old. Next, they used dynamic panel data models to examine the effects of maternal employment on family outcomes during the first 4.5 years of children’s lives. Among mothers of six month old infants, maternal work hours are positively associated with depressive symptoms and self-reported parenting stress, and negatively associated with self-rated overall health among mothers. Compared to mothers who are on leave 3 months after childbirth, mothers who are working full-time score 22 percent higher on the CES-D scale of depressive symptoms. However, maternal employment is not
associated with the quality of parenting at 6 months, based on trained assessors’ observations of maternal sensitivity. Moreover, during the first 4.5 years of life as a whole, they found only weak evidence that maternal work hours are associated with maternal health, and no evidence that maternal employment is associated with parenting stress and quality. They found that unobserved heterogeneity is an important factor in modeling family outcomes.

Talib et al. (2011) Attempted to examine effects of parenting styles of dual earner families on children behaviour and school achievement. Using 200 families as a sample. A result of the study indicates that for mothers and fathers authoritative styles have positive effects on children behaviour and school achievement. In contrast, the permissive and authoritarian styles have negative effects on children behaviour and school achievement. Effects of findings on children development are discussed.

Matheen (2011) studied influence of certain aspects of socio-economic status namely maternal employment and education, and the family income and examined its influences on the self-concept of older adolescents. The sample consisted of two hundred and forty city college students in the age group of 17 to 20 years. Self-concept questionnaire by Dr. Rajkumar Sarawat was used to measure their self-concept and certain factors viz., maternal education and employment, and the family income were collected. The data was analyzed using parametric tests of independence and univariate techniques. Education and employment status of mothers had significant impact on the self-concept of their adolescent children, and the family income had profound effect on the self-concept of the adolescent sample. The study implicated for father's influences, family environment, and gender and age differences on the self-concept of the adolescents.
Huerta et al. (2011) investigated possible negative effects of maternal employment on child development. For the first time, this paper presents an initial comparative analysis of longitudinal data on maternal employment patterns after birth on child cognitive and behavioural development. The paper examined data of five OECD countries with different types and intensity of support provided to families to reconcile work and family life. The evidence suggested that a return to paid work by mothers within six months after childbirth may have negative effects on child outcomes, particularly on cognitive development, but the effects are small and not universally observed. Other factors such as family income, parental education and quality of interactions with children have greater influences on child development than early maternal employment per se.

Anxiety

There is no single set of biological or psychological process that defines anxiety; in a simple way it is consider anxiety purely in objective terms, that is, in a state of the organism. This is because the concept of anxiety is used differently by different people, and even the same person may use anxiety differently on different occasions. Anxiety is often a diffuse, unpleasant and uncomfortable feeling of apprehension, accompanied by one or more bodily sensation that receives in the same manner in the person, it is an altering signal that warns an individual of imminent danger and enables him to take manner to deal with it. The large numbers of researches conducted by the investigators in the field of anxiety are presented below.

Kirkealdy and Sicfen (1998) examined depression, anxiety and self image among children and adolescents with parental and educational attitudes. Results indicated that traits anxiety was the most potent predictor of trait depression, together
with emotionality, low self confidence, inferior family relationship (parental tension), and mental ill-health. Scoring high on depression scale further differed in their attitude towards parents, siblings and school, they were more likely to complain about their relationship to their parents (low family involvement and cohesiveness) and to display low achievement motivation and obedience.

Fuller et al. (1998) examined the structure of negative emotions in a clinical sample of children and adolescents. The authors sought to define the factors associated with childhood anxiety and depression using a structural equations/confirmatory factor analytic approach involving multiple information i.e. parents and child reports of symptoms. Sample comprised of 216 children and adolescents. Results of comparative modeling best supported 3- factors solution (fear, anxiety and depression) that were consisted with recent conceptual models of anxiety and depression.

Mark (1998) examined the relationship between anxiety and social desirability and self reported anxiety in young children. Sample comprised of 1,786 children with age ranged 7 to 14 years old. Results indicated that anxiety and lie scores did not correlate for either gender or age grouping, however, anxiety scores interacted with lie scores differently for males and females in term of the agreement between children’s and teachers’ rating anxiety. Indications are that social desirability levels may in part explain the consistent discrepancies found between child and adults reports of anxiety.

Jeffery et al. (1999) investigated the relationship between youth and parent perceptions of family environment and social anxiety. Sample comprised of 2,708 students of 7th, 8th, 9th, and 11th grade students and 404 of their parents. Subjects responding higher level of social anxiety, perceived their parents as being more socially isolating overly concerned about others’ opinions, ashamed of their shyness and poor
performance, and less socially active than did youth reporting lower level of social anxiety, parents perception of child rearing style and family environment however, did not differ between parents of socially anxious and non socially anxious children.

Rabian et al. (1999) conducted study on behavioural validation of the childhood anxiety sensitivity index (CASI). The sample consisted of 56 children with age ranged 8 to 11 years old asked to complete the CASI as well as self report measure of state anxiety and trait anxiety and subjective fear. Results indicated that the CASI was significant predictor of the degree of state anxiety and subjective fear reported in response to the challenge task, even after controlling for pre task. The finding supported that the validity of the CASI in preadolescence children and suggest that CASI possesses unique clinical utility relative to measure of trait anxiety.

Tari (1999) examined genetic and environmental influences on rating of manifest anxiety by parents and children. The sample consisted of large numbers of children with age ranged 8 to 10 years old. Results indicated that substantial difference in genetic effect according to both gender and informant. For children self report, temporal stability was largely a function of environmental effects.

Paul et al. (2000) examined the association between anxiety and psychopathy dimension in children. The sample consisted of 143 clinically referred children age ranged from 6 to 13 years. They found that (a) measure of trait anxiety, anxiety and fearfulness (low fearfulness) exhibited low correlation (b) conduct problem tended to be positively correlated with trait anxiety and fearful inhibitions. These findings bear potentially important implication for the diagnosis and etiology of psychopathy and antisocial behaviour.
Erin et al. (2001) investigated the role of perceived parenting behaviour in the relationship between parent and offspring anxiety disorder in a high risk sample of adolescent. The sample comprised of 816, fifteen years old children. Results suggested that maternal anxiety disorder significantly exhibited the presence of anxiety disorder in children, but there was no evidence that perceived parenting played a mediating role in the association between mother and child anxiety disorders.

Paz (2001) examined parent and child group therapy for childhood anxiety disorders using a manual based cognitive-behaviour technique. Sample comprised of 24 children with age ranged from 6 to 13 years old children with an anxiety disorder (separation anxiety, over anxious disorder or both) and their parents participated in a 10 session of treatment. Results indicated that anxiety symptoms decreased significantly during the treatment and follow up periods. Children of mothers with an anxiety disorder improved more than children of non anxious mothers, where as the anxiety level of anxious mothers remained stable.

Jennifer and Ronald (2002) examined parent-child interaction and anxiety disorder among children. It is an observational study in which sample consisted of clinically anxious children and nonclinical anxious children with age ranged from 7 to 15 years. Results shown that mother of anxious children were more negative during the interaction than mother of nonclinical children. The findings supported the relationship between an over involved parenting style and anxiety among children.

Mark (2003) conducted study on learning and intimacy in the families of anxious children. The aim of this study is to review the literature on the role of the family in the development of anxiety problems in children. Emerging evidence shows that specific parent child social learning processes, operating within the context of the
quality and consistency of intimate relationships, an important in the development of anxiety problems. These processes interact within child’s temperament in predicting the development of anxiety problems. Family with both an inhibited child and anxious parents are particularly prone to becoming entrapped in social learning processes that foster escalating anxiety problems.

Peter et al. (2003) examined relationship between child and parent reported behaviour inhibition and symptoms of anxiety and depression in normal adolescents. The sample comprised of large number of young adolescents with age range from 11 to 15 years old with their parent. Results showed that parents and children agreement for behaviour inhibition and symptoms of anxiety and depression was rather modest. Furthermore, the data indicated that high level of child and parent reported behavioural inhibitions were accompanied by high levels of anxiety disorder symptoms and depression.

Ora and Avigdor (2003) examined family environment, discrepancies between actual and desirable environment and children’s test and trait anxiety. The sample consisted of 456 respondents. The main findings were that children’s levels of anxiety were negatively correlated with discrepancy between actual and desirable family environment.

Johnson et al. (2005) compared socially anxious and depressive symptomatology in youth: a focus on perceived family environment. Study was conducted in three groups and results indicated that the mixed and depressed groups rated their parents as being overly concerned with others opinions, feeling ashamed of their performance and restricting family sociability more than the socially anxious and comparison groups with respect to the latter two groups, the socially anxious group
rated their family environment more negatively than the comparisons group on each of these variable.

Ballash et al. (2006) studied family functioning perceived control and anxiety: a meditational model. 364 undergraduates were taken as the sample of the study. Results showed that, no moderating effects were found but sense of control mediated the relationship (relation) between aspects of family functioning and anxiety.

Peleg (2006) examined relationship between preschoolers’ separation anxiety and adjustment to kindergarten and their mothers’ separation anxiety and levels of differentiation. The main findings of this research were positive correlation between mothers’ and children’s separation anxiety, as well as negative correlations between children’s separation anxiety and maternal differentiation, so that lower differentiation and higher cut off were associated with higher level of anxiety. The results suggested that a crucial balance of separation and closeness provided an optimal context for meeting the needs and promoting the healthy development of both mother and child.

Mafrad et al. (2009) examined the relationship between psychological distress in mothers and separation anxiety disorder in children. Sample consisted of 120 children study in first grade. There was evidence that significant and positive relationship existed between maternal anxiety and separation anxiety disorder in children, the results of this study highlights the psychological constructs which may be relevant for the assessment and intervention in children suffering from separation anxiety disorder.

Dev and Chatterjee. (2010) examined anxiety across gender, school type, socioeconomic background, mothers’ employment status and adolescents’ perceptions of quality time with their parents. Results showed that anxiety was prevalent in the sample
with 20.1% of boys and 17.9% of girls found to be suffering from high anxiety. Adolescent belonging to middle socio-economic group suffered more anxiety than those from both high and low socio-economic groups. Adolescent with working mothers were found to be more anxious. Results also showed that a substantial proportion of adolescents perceived that they did not receive quality time from fathers (32.1%) and mothers (21.3%). A large number of adolescent also not feel comfortable to share their personal issues with their parents (60.0% for fathers and 40.0% for mothers).

Buehler and O’Brien (2011) investigated the associations between mothers’ part-time employment and mother well-being, parenting, and family functioning by using seven waves of the NICHD Study of Early Child Care and Youth Development data (N=1,364), infancy through middle childhood. Concurrent comparisons were made between families in which mothers were employed part time and both those in which mothers were not employed and those in which mothers were employed full time. Using multivariate analysis of covariance with extensive controls, results indicated that mothers employed part time had fewer depressive symptoms during the infancy and preschool years and better self-reported health at most time points than did non employed mothers. Across the time span studied, mothers working part time tended to report less conflict between work and family than those working full time. During their children’s preschool years, mothers employed part time exhibited more sensitive parenting than did other mothers, and at school age were more involved in school and provided more learning opportunities than mothers employed full time. Mothers employed part time reported doing a higher proportion of child care and housework than mothers employed full time. Part-time employment appears to have some benefits for mothers and families throughout the child rearing years.
Adjustment

Adjustment is a state of life when individual is more or less in harmony with personal, biological, social and psychological needs and with the demand of the physical environment. Every individual constantly strives to meet his needs. The environmental pressures force him to behave in certain way. The interaction of the individual with his environment represents the dynamic state of equilibrium, disequilibrium between the exigencies of his personal needs and situational demands. This effectiveness of individual’s efforts to meet his need and adapt to the environment is called adjustment.

Nelson (1971) determined impact of working and non working mothers on personality adjustment among children. In this study, personality adjustment measured by the Minnesota Counseling Inventory (MCI) among 312 students of 9th standard who were categorized according to their mothers’ work history. For analysis, the data analysis of variance was used for differentiation between two groups. Results revealed that (1) in all instance, personality adjustment of boys was better when the mother worked full time than part time or not at all; (2) The personality adjustment of girls did not follow a consistent patter regarding the employment history of their mothers; (3) Girls with non working mothers have better adjustment scores than girls with mothers who had worked either full time or part time.

Gold et al. (1978) examined the developmental comparison between children with employed and non employed mothers. Sample consisted of 223 children of 10 years old girls and boys with either full time or half time from working class or middle class families. The data provided some support for the hypothesis. Children with employed mothers had the most egalitarian sex role concepts; however, this appears
primarily related to their mothers’ greater satisfaction with their roles. Maternal employment status was partly related to the adjustment of the children. Middle class boys with employed mothers had lower scores on language and mathematics achievement tests than the other middle class children. Employed mothers and their husbands reported more similar behaviour patterns with in home and attitudes that differed somewhat from those reported by non employed mothers and their husbands.

Chowdhry et al. (1996) examined the role of home environment (authoritarian versus democratic) on different dimensions of adjustment among 200 student of 9th and 10th grade. Students asked to complete Parent and Child Relationship Scale developed by Akhter in 1979 and Bell’s adjustment inventory. Results indicated that children from democratic home environment exhibited superior adjustment in all areas (home, health, social, emotional and composite) compared to their counterparts reared in an authoritarian home environment.

Ketsetzis (1998) examined the relationship between family processes and children's school based social adjustment. Results demonstrated that the most consistent and direct association of family processes with school social adjustment. A variety of parent-child interaction factors and family life factors also were found to predict adjustment indirectly.

Kerig (1998) examined moderational and meditational models of the relationship among appraisals, inter-parental conflict, and adjustment among children. Parents rated children’s exposure to inter-parental conflict, internalizing, and total behaviour problems. Results overall demonstrated more consistent support for the moderational than mediation hypothesis. Appraisals of conflict, threat, self blame and perceived control moderated the effect of inter-parental conflict on externalizing total
problem and anxiety in boys and conflict, threat, self blame, perceived control, and self calming acted as moderators of internalizing in girls.

Banka (1999) examined the effect of maternal employment on children’s home and emotional adjustment. Sample consisted of 100 school children age range from 13 to 15 years. The findings indicated that the children of working mothers exhibit better home adjustment than the children of non working mothers and there was no significant difference between the children of working mothers and children of non working mothers on the measure of emotional adjustment.

Ravi (1999) compared differences in adjustment of daughters of working and non working mothers. Participants asked to complete High School Adjustment Inventory, which assess levels of adjustment in 5 areas i.e., home, health, social, emotional and school adjustment. Results exhibited that daughter of non working mothers had overall better adjustment than daughters of working mothers. There were significant difference in the adjustment of the groups in the areas of the health, social and school adjustment.

John et al. (2000) examined the temperament and parent-child relation as interacting factors in children’s behavioural adjustment. The authors considered how characteristics of parent and child relationship and child temperament may moderate one another in the predictions of child adjustment outcomes.

Dong-Beom and Il-Hwan (2000) examined the relationships between maternal employment and schoolchildren's educational aspirations in Korea. The sample consisted of 1,294 fifth- and tenth-graders and their mothers. These students in 1996 were attending public schools and living in two-parent families in Taegu, Korea. The results showed that children whose mothers were working full-time had lower
educational aspirations, compared with those whose mothers were not in the labor force. Girls whose mothers were working full-time had lower educational aspirations than girls whose mothers were not working. Maternal involvement and parents' educational expectations in part mitigated the negative effects of maternal employment on children's educational aspirations.

Lamb et al. (2000) examined links between the parent and child relationships, home learning environment and school readiness or school adjustment. Results of 173 mothers with their children indicated that changes in the parent and child relationship and home learning environment associated with improvement in school readiness or adjustment. In one hand, increase in a parents’ understanding of playing and ability to facilitate a child’s learning predict several positive behaviour outcomes’ in the school, on the other hand increased parental aggression and strictness over time had a negative impact on a children distractibility and hostility in the school and decrease in the association vocabulary skills.

Emma et al. (2002) examined parental and residential stability and its effect on adjustment of children. They also identified environmental factors affecting children’s development and typically focused on the quality of home environment, less attention has been paid to environmental stability as a factors influencing children’s well being. Results of this research suggests that there are association between the degree of environmental instability and difficulties in adjustment, such that children exposed to higher levels of family instability show worse adjustment across a variety of development domains.

Dopkins and Carin (2003) examined the impact of parenting cooperation with children school adjustment. The sample consisted of 52 families’ mothers, fathers and
their children. Results indicated that there were significant interactions between parent’s rejection and supportive behaviour with children’s school adjustment.

Lakhe (2003) conducted a study to provide some insight into level of emotional and social adjustment of the adolescents of 66 working and non-working mothers and to study the relationship between the adolescents level of adjustments of working and non-working mothers. A simple random sampling consisting of 500 adolescents form Nanded city were selected irrespective of their parents’ occupation, number of siblings, age, sex, religion, urban or rural background. The sample was divided into two groups i.e. the group of working and non-working mothers. Bell’s Adjustment Inventory, were used that measures four areas of adjustment viz., home, health, social and emotional separately as well as composite scores for overall adjustment. From observed results it was found that the social adjustment factor is more among the adolescents of working mothers. The adolescents belonging to the working mother group clearly indicates greater level of emotional adjustments. The total level of adjustment of adolescents of working mother is higher. The researcher strongly recommends improvement in the areas of overall adjustment of the adolescents of nonworking mothers group.

Gadeyne (2004) studied the predictive relation between reports of parenting behaviour on the one hand and academic achievement and behaviour problems of young children on the other hand. The data gathered from 325 children with their parents from kindergartens to 2\textsuperscript{nd} grade. The results indicated that in the academic domain, low supportive and high controlling practice was modestly related to poor behaviour.

Adam et al. (2004) examined parental and residential stability and its effect on adjustment of children. They also identified environmental factors affecting children’s
development and typically focused on the quality of home environment, less attention has been paid to environmental stability as a factors influencing children’s well being. Results of this research suggests that there are association between the degree of environmental instability and difficulties in adjustment, such that children exposed to higher levels of family instability show worse adjustment across a variety of development domains.

Mohanraj and Latha (2005) investigated the impact of family environment on home adjustment and academic achievement among adolescents. Results indicated that family environment appeared to influence home adjustment as well academic performance. The majority of the sample perceived their family as cohesive, organized, achievement oriented and emphasizing on moral-religious issues with minimal conflict. Cohesion, conflict control, intellectual- cultural orientation and independence in the family environment influenced home adjustment. Academic performance was significantly related to independence and conflict domains of family environment. Boys and girls differed in perception of the home and environment.

Raju and Rahamtulla (2007) intended to examine the adjustment problems of urban and rural school students of Visakhapatnam district. The variables included for the study apart from adjustment (family, social, academic, financial and emotional) are age, gender, class, type of school etc. The major finding of the study have shown that adjustment of school students is primarily dependent on the school variables like the class in which they are studying, the medium of instruction present in the school, and the type of management of the school. Parental education and occupation of the school children also significantly influenced.
Sharma and Dharmawat (2009) investigated behavioural adjustment of preadolescent children of working and non-working mothers. Sample consisted of 120 pre-adolescent children who were further divided into three groups; (A) Preadolescent Children of working mothers; (B) Preadolescent Children of non-working mothers; (C) Groups of Preadolescent Children divided on the basis of Gender (Boy and Girls) of both working and nonworking mother. Preadolescent adjustment Scale (P.A.A.S.) was administered to know about the adjustment level of the children. Findings revealed significant difference among three groups and girls were found to be higher in adjustment level in all the groups (A, B, C) in comparison to boys.

Francavilla et al. (2010) examined the relation between mothers’ employment and their children’s schooling in India. Using the second National Family Health Survey, the results of a joint multi-level random effects model showed that, controlling for covariates, the correlation between mothers’ employment and children’s schooling is negative. A sensitivity analysis on wealth and education deciles shows that this relation disappears in urban areas and becomes weaker in rural areas only at the top wealth deciles, but persists for the more educated mothers. The last result may be driven by the low number of females with a high level of education in India, but it also seems to envisage that, for mothers with lower education, being literate does not increase pay conditions. These findings suggested that policies aiming at improving both women’s and children’s welfare should not only pursue higher levels of education, but also target improvements in women’s conditions in the labour market.

Kageni (2011) investigated the impact of maternal employment on preadolescent social adjustment in Nairobi and also investigated whether there was any gender difference in pre-adolescent social adjustment between children of employed
and non-employed mothers. In addition, the study investigated the differences in social adjustment between pre-adolescents who were taken care of by specific caregivers. An ex-post facto research design was used for the study. The subjects of the study were 549 respondents. Specifically, 195 were boys and 228 were girls. The responses were scored after which data was computer analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Kruskal-Wallis Non Parametric ANOVA at 0.05 level of significance was used in the analysis to establish whether there were differences or not in the variables under study. There was a significant relationship between pre-adolescent social adjustment and maternal employment status at 0.05 level of significance. There was no significant difference in mother-child interaction between children of employed and non-employed mothers at 0.05 level of significance. There were significant gender differences in preadolescent social adjustment between children of employed and non-employed mothers at 0.05 level of significance. The Post Hoc test revealed that boys of non-employed mothers contributed to the significant difference. There was no significant difference in pre-adolescent social adjustment among children who are left under specific caregivers at 0.05 level of significance. There was no significant difference in pre-adolescent social adjustment between children who are in boarding schools and day schools at 0.05 level of significance. There was a significant relationship between pre-adolescent social adjustment and educational level of the mother at 0.05 level of significance. The Post Hoc test showed that children whose mothers attained secondary school level of education contributed to the significant relationship.

Permani (2011) investigated the link between maternal employment and child health status. Using data from Indonesia, the results emphasize the roles of family compared to schools, in particular the roles of mother’s in improving child’s wellbeing.
In addition, there still seems to be inequality in child’s wellbeing between in urban and rural areas. She found no enough evidence on the link between hiring a domestic assistant, outside food consumption and child’s wellbeing.

**Home Environment**

Good home is the principal context in which child’s development occurs. It is one of several environments or ecological systems that influence children’s lives (Rich, 1998). Home plays an important role in the development of children personality, which is undergoing structural, emotional and interactional transformation. Home occupies first and the most significant place in the development of the child. It is the first environment with which children interaction from birth take place; where in family member’s mothers, fathers and children interact and influence each other both directly and indirectly (Minuchin 2002).

Coon et al. (1990) examined relationship between family environment and childhood cognitive abilities whether it is related directly through environmental transmission or indirectly through correlation with parental genotypes. The sample comprised of 153 adoptive families’ children and 136 non adoptive families’ children. The results of the study showed that home environment was found to have significant direct environmental effects on children’s cognitive abilities. However, ostensible environment development relations for most measures were due to indirect genetic mediation.

Thompson (1993) examined the impact of employed mother on caring of children. In this study author developed interview schedule with 20 married employed mothers of preschoolers in day care centre of children. Each one described a recent experience: when their child was ill on a working day, about her feelings, advantages
and disadvantages of available options, preferences, job characteristics, and demographics information. Inductive analysis of narrative data revealed themes of anxiety and decisional conflict between work and motherhood responsibilities and limited care options. These mothers usually cared for their sick children, sometimes sharing the duty with another caregiver.

Biabangard and Hatami (1995) examined the effects of working mothers on social development and educational progress of children. In this research, they used the samples of 100 randomly chosen students from 3rd grade elementary class. Social development test were applied and in order to measure the educational progress of the students’ average of their 1st and 2nd trimester grades. The results showed that working mothers have positive effects on the social development and educational progress of children especially on girls.

Peterson and Paulson (1997) examined how students’ perceptions of parenting, teaching, and school factors known to influence academic achievement may differ by maternal employment status in the home. Analysis showed that students with non-employed mothers had higher self competence when their parents displayed higher values about achievement, whereas students with employed mothers had higher self competence when their parents were directly involved in school activities. Students whose mothers were employed also were more influenced by their peers’ achievement orientation than were students whose mothers were not employed. The results suggested that students in different family structures may be differently influenced by their environments.

Susan et al. (1997) examined the parental influence on children’s socialization to gender role. In their study they found that attitude and behaviour are generally
learned in home and are then reinforced on gender role development seems to occur within the family setting, with parents passing on, both overtly and covertly, to their children their own beliefs about gender. This overview of the impact of parental influence on gender role development leads to the suggestion that an androgynous gender role orientation may be more beneficial to children than strict adherence to traditional gender roles.

Rozumah and Tom (1998) examined factors related to the quality of home environment and its impact on children’s achievement. Results indicated that mothers who provided better quality of the home environment had higher levels of education, intelligence and self esteem. Mothers with higher family incomes, fewer children and higher marital quality provided more supportive home environment. In addition age and gender of the children were significantly related to the quality of home environment. Quality of home environment that mothers provided was related to their children’s achievement.

Birla (1999) examined the children in difficult circumstances. i.e. adoptive parents, behaviour problems in children, children of professional mothers, etc. it was found that mothers love is an important factor which influenced adolescents’ institutionalized girl’s psychological development. In the parental relationship, It was observed that the father did not play a very important role while the mother did in the lives of girls the poverty of mother’s love had a very adverse effect as a result of which girls tented to be lonely and even neurotic. Good parenting was found to be an important factor contribution to positive outcomes.

Devi Prasad (2001) examined the relationship between mother employment and violence towards children. Results indicated that non working mothers reported higher
rates of violence, while for working parents, work stress and income are found to be indirectly related to child abuse. Non working mothers are more punitive as compared to the working mothers. Middle forms of violence, such as shouting and swearing at the child are the most common forms of child abuse. Violence rates among the children for the preceding year are found to be high in forms such as slapping or spanking, hitting the child with something and beating the child.

Thomas (2001) examined whether the occupational status of mothers has criminogenic effects on their children. The data collected from National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) suggested that characteristics of maternal work have relatively little or no influence on delinquency, but have a slight (and complex) indirect effect through the delinquency pathway. This general pattern holds regardless of whether early maternal employment (i.e., work occurring when children were in the preschool years) or current maternal employment is considered. These findings contradicted the view that maternal employment causes child behavioural problems.

Fuller et al. (2002) examined does maternal employment influence poor children’s social development. Results of this study showed that mother’s recent employment duration was significantly associated with a lower incident of aggressive behaviour and inattentiveness. Further results showed that employment gains rarely affect child outcomes unless mothers’ income and broader economic security also improved.

Jody and Alison (2002) conducted study to see the impact of parental working condition on school age children. The sample consisted of 1,133 school children age range from 5 to 10 years old. The observation measurement of home environment score was used to predict the children school developmental and health outcomes. Results
showed that at least one parent working in the evening had significant negative effect on the home environment both for families living in poverty and those who were not living poverty.

Minakshi and Dalip (2005) examined the relationship between family environment and the development of aggressive tendencies. Sample comprised of 100 girls and 100 boys with age ranged from 15 to 18 years old. Results of this research demonstrated that family environment affected aggressive behaviour. Gender difference, as expected showed that boys scored higher than girls on physical, verbal and indirect aggression. Results related to the perception levels for various dimensions of family environment were different in boys and in girls.

Jackson and Scheines et al. (2005) studied the links between and among low wage employment, mothers’ efficacy beliefs, depressive symptoms, and a constellation of parenting behaviour in the preschool years to children’s cognitive and behavioural functioning. In general, the results supported a model in which the influence of mothers’ employment on maternal parenting and child outcomes was largely and indirectly related to higher self efficacy, which in turn was associated with decreased depressive symptoms.

Sandra (2006) investigated the moderating effect of mother and child warmth and conflict on association between family involvements in children’s education. The sample consisted of 175 children with their mothers from low level of income families. Results indicated that higher maternal school involvement in their children’s education was related to higher child achievement if the mother and child shared a warm relationship.
Kostas et. al. (2007) investigated how exposures to different home and school environmental settings are associated with children’s trajectories of externalizing problems. Findings suggested that boys were more likely to be identified in the chronic group and girls in the low group. Furthermore, the findings suggested that the chronic externalizing problems group was also at high risk for experiencing a negative home environment across time, finally the findings suggested that the quality of the child’s home environment had the more pervasive consequences for the establishment and continuation of externalizing problems in comparison to the quality of child’s childcare environment.

Hsin (1987) in this study used children’s time diaries from the child development supplement of the panel study of income dynamics to investigates the effect of maternal involvement during pre school years on children’s cognitive outcomes assessed at the ages 5 to 12 and involved a total of 1,008 children. He found a positive and persistent effect of total quantity of time mothers’ spend with children and the time they spend playing together on children’s language development. This result suggests that women differ in their ability to successfully translate childcare time into positive cognitive outcomes. This study is the first to identify time use as a mechanism for the social reproduction of cognitive skills. Time with children is pathway through which skilled mothers impart their skills and knowledge onto children.

Yetis-Bayraktar (2008) examined the impact of quality of maternal employment on children’s reading achievement. The sample consisted of children with age range from 6 to 13 years old. The hypothesis asserted that job quality in terms of level of autonomy, so advisory power, complexity with people, data and things, and family benefits had significant positive effects on children’s reading achievement. The
results indicated that complexity, power, and autonomy have significant positive effects for children and whole the effect of family benefits is weak.

Yunos and Talib (2009) examined mothers’ working condition and its impact on parenting style, children behaviour and school achievement. Sample consisted of 400 primary school children below 12 years of age and 400 mothers worked full time. Data of this study was analyzed by using ‘path model analysis’ and results of this study indicated that mothers’ working conditions have modest effects on parenting style, children behaviour and school achievement.

Siu, et al. (2010) investigated parent and child interaction patterns and its relationship with preschool children’s social behaviour. The sample consisted of 52 children. Findings suggested a negative relationship between child’s aggressive behaviour and parent’s nurturing toward his or her child. In addition, a child’s demonstration of exploratory behaviour, reciprocity with parents, and regulatory capacities were positively related to that child’s social competence and negatively related to the child’s aggressive behaviour.

O’Brien and Cheryl (2011) examined the associations between mothers’ part-time employment and mother well-being, parenting, and family functioning. They used seven waves of the NICHD Study of Early Child Care and Youth Development data (N = 1,364), infancy through middle childhood. Concurrent comparisons were made between families in which mothers were employed part time and both those in which mothers were not employed and those in which mothers were employed full time. Using multivariate analysis of covariance with extensive controls, results indicated that mothers employed part time had fewer depressive symptoms during the infancy and preschool years and better self-reported health at most time points than did non
employed mothers. Across the time span studied, mothers working part time tended to report less conflict between work and family than those working full time. During their children’s preschool years, mothers employed part time exhibited more sensitive parenting than did other mothers, and at school age were more involved in school and provided more learning opportunities than mothers employed full time. Mothers employed part time reported doing a higher proportion of child care and housework than mothers employed full time. Part-time employment appears to have some benefits for mothers and families throughout the child rearing years.

Wills and Brauer (2012) analyzed longitudinal data from a sample of children and their mothers drawn from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. They introduced a series of age, cohort, and maternal employment interaction terms into multilevel models predicting child well-being to assess whether any potential short-term or long-term effects of early and current maternal employment vary across birth cohorts. Results indicated that maternal employment largely was inconsequential to child well-being regardless of birth cohort, with a few exceptions. For instance, children born in earlier cohorts may have experienced long-term positive effects of having an employed mother; however, as maternal employment became more commonplace in recent cohorts, these beneficial effects appear to have disappeared. They discussed theoretical and methodological implications of these findings.

Tam et al. (2012) investigated the relationship between parental authority and parent-child relationship and also to explore the differences between males and females in terms of their relationship with their parents. The study was conducted among 160 participants between the ages of 17 to 25 in Klang Valley, Selangor, Malaysia. The instruments used in the present study were Parent-Child Relationship Survey (PCRS)
and Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ). The results revealed that there were significant parent-child relationships when the mother or father was authoritative in their parenting style. Furthermore, male participants rated both parents as significantly more authoritarian as compared to female participants. Male participants also rated both parents as significantly more permissive as compared to the ratings of their counterparts. Lastly, there was no significant difference between gender and parent-child relationship.

**Hypotheses:**

Ho1. Personal freedom- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho2. Critical- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho3. Social isolation- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho4. Acceptance- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho5. Understanding- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho6. Severity of discipline- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho7. Emotional stability in discipline action- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.
Ho8. Neglecting- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho9. Rapport with parents- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho10. Rapport with siblings- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho11. Socio-economic status- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho12. General satisfaction- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho13. Inter-parental relations- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho14. Home environment will not influence children’s self-concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho15. Personal freedom- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho16. Critical- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho17. Social isolation- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.
Ho_{18}. Acceptance - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{19}. Understanding - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{20}. Severity of discipline - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{21}. Emotional stability in discipline action - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{22}. Neglecting - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{23}. Rapport with parents - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{24}. Rapport with siblings - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{25}. Socio-economic status - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{26}. General satisfaction - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{27}. Inter-parental relations - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho_{28}. Home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.
Ho29. Personal freedom- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho30. Critical- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho31. Social isolation- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho32. Acceptance- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho33. Understanding- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho34. Severity of discipline- a dimension of home environment will not influences children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho35. Emotional stability in discipline action -a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho36. Neglecting - a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s anxiety level.

Ho37. Rapport with parents- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self concept as a whole or its any dimension.

Ho38. Rapport with siblings- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.
$H_{O39}$. Socio-economic status- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s self concept as a whole or its any dimension.

$H_{O40}$. General satisfaction- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

$H_{O41}$. Inter-parental relations- a dimension of home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.

$H_{O42}$. Home environment will not influence children’s adjustment as a whole or its any dimension.