CHAPTER-2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Review of related literature is an important research effort as it provides comprehensive understanding of what is already known about the topic. The main function of citing review of literature is to provide a basis for developing a framework. Familiarity with research work of others provides up-to-date knowledge of the latest developments, findings, recommendations, tools and loop holes of researches. It helps to avoid duplication of what has already been done, and provides useful directions and helpful suggestions for research work. Thus an attempt has been made in this chapter to review the studies related to this investigation.

Adolescence is bridge between childhood and adulthood. It is the period of rapid growth between childhood and adulthood, including psychological and social development. Webster Dictionary (2012) documents that this is a transitional stage of physical and psychological human development generally occurring between puberty and legal adulthood (age of majority). Santrock (1993) defines adolescence as, the developmental period of transition between childhood and adulthood that involves biological, cognitive and social changes. Hence proper guidance at this crucial phase of life is all the more important for enhancing their self-concept, enriching their knowledge and skills in decision-making, conflict resolution and management of emotions. The Origin of the word Adolescence is from the Latin verb ‘adolescere’, which means, ‘to grow up.’ It can be defined as the transitional stage of development between childhood and full adulthood, representing the period of time during which a person is biologically adult but emotionally not at full maturity. Major physiologic, cognitive, and behavioral changes take place during this period. During this period, biological development and psychosocial development overlap. A person's body undergoes dramatic changes. Adolescent is associated with notable changes in mood sometimes known as mood swings. Cognitive, emotional and attitudinal changes which are characteristic of adolescence, often take place during this period, and this can be a cause of conflict on one hand and positive personality development on the other. Because the adolescents are experiencing various strong cognitive and physical
changes, for the first time in their lives they may start to view their friends, their peer group, as more important and influential than their parents/guardians. Because of peer pressure, they may sometimes indulge in activities not deemed socially acceptable, although this may be more of a social phenomenon than a psychological one. The home is an important aspect of adolescent psychology: home environment and family have a substantial impact on the developing minds of teenagers, and these developments may reach a climax during adolescence.

Positive psychology is sometimes brought up when addressing adolescent as well. This approach towards adolescents refers to providing them with motivation to become socially acceptable and notable individuals, since many adolescents find themselves bored, indecisive and/or unmotivated. World Health Organization (WHO) defines adolescence both in terms of age (spanning the ages between 10 and 19 years) and in terms of a phase of life marked by special attributes.

One fundamental change in the structure of the Indian family during the past few decades has been the increase in employment of married woman. Today, the modal family is one in which both husband and wife work. Most of today’s children will spend at least part of their lives in a family with a working mother. A person’s first experience and knowledge of others come from the experiences within the family. The family is a powerful socializing agent and research has confirmed that the quality of the attachment and bonding processes between parent and infant in the first few months and years of life are important for the later emotional health of the individual. Many people believe that once children reach early adolescence, their autonomy and independence from parents insulates them from whatever negative or positive consequences might result from maternal absence due to employment. This view may not be warranted however, since adolescents continue to interact with their mothers and alternations of the family system as a result of maternal employment might have a performed effect on adolescent development.

Bogenschineider and Steinberg (1994) found that upper-middle-class and middle-class boys reported lower grades at high school when their mothers were working. This may be interpreted as indicating that additional resources brought in to
a household through the mother’s work have positive effects through investment in children’s education if the household is poor, but negative effects from a lack of children’s supervision overwhelm such a positive effect if the household is rich to begin with, although this assumes that the maternal employment status is exogenous.

Youngblut, Singer, Madigan, Swegart, and Rodgers, (1998) were explored differences in parent-child and family relationships for employed and non-employed single mothers. They found that employed mothers had more positive perceptions and provided more enriching home environments for their children. They noted that in single-parent families, employment and consistency are positive influences on the mother-child relationship.

Chase-Lansdale, Moffitt, Lohman, Cherlin, Coley, Pittman, Roff, and Votruba-Drzal, (2003) have documented that mother’s transitions into employment were related to improvements in adolescent’s mental health. Adolescents whose mothers began working reported statistically significant declines in psychological distress. With adolescents and teenagers an improvement in their mental health was found in correlation with increased incomes in the family. Depressive and aggressive symptoms increased with mother’s exit from employment.

Baum (2003) was studied the effect of maternal employment on child development and found that maternal paid work has detrimental effects on the child's cognitive development. Moreover, his results suggested that increased family income from maternal work partially offsets the negative effects of maternal employment.

Ruhm (2004) was studied parent employment and child cognitive outcome and showed that maternal employment during the 1st three years of a child's life has a negative effect on the cognitive abilities of children aged five and six years old.

Clements (2004) in his study revealed that non-employed mothers provide less structured activities to their children during after school time as compared to employed mothers. Though non employed mothers provide more unstructured time to child during after school hours but, the maximum time is spent on watching TV, playing videogames as compared to free play activities.
Scott (2004) was studied that children, and especially boys, whose mothers worked full-time (at least 30 hours per week) when they were 11 to 15 were less likely to attain five or more GCSE passes at age 16 than children with stay-at-home mothers. However, full-time maternal employment yielded a positive effect upon girls—but not boys—at the A-level, although this effect lost its statistical significance in multivariate analysis that controlled for factors such as family income, parental education, and home ownership.

Gregg, Washbrook, Propper, & Burgess (2005) have examined the impact of maternal employment on children development and they found that full-time maternal employment, started in the first 18 months of a child’s life, has some negative association with later child outcomes, significant only for literacy at age 7. Part-time employment before 18 months and any employment that began later do not seem to have any adverse effects.

Albrad (2006) was studied parental occupation and home environment and documented that employed mothers reported that outdoor play has declined in both quantity and quality. They view this decline was due to children’s lack of time for free play, too many interruptions and organized activities, and media’s influence.

**Review on self-concept in relation to relevant variables**

Self-concept is the cognitive or thinking aspect of self (related to one’s self-image) and generally refers to ‘the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person holds to be true about his or her personal existence’ (Purkey, 1988). Self-concept can also refer to the general idea we have of ourselves and self-esteem can refer to particular measures about components of self-concept. Some authors even use the two terms interchangeably. The self-concept is composed of relatively permanent self-assessments such as personality attributes, knowledge of one's skills and abilities, one's occupation and hobbies, and awareness of one's physical attributes. For example, the statement, ‘I am lazy’ is a self-assessment that contributes to the self-concept. In contrast, the statement ‘I am tired’ would not normally be considered part of
someone's self-concept, since being tired is a temporary state. Nevertheless, a person's self-concept may change with time, possibly going through turbulent periods of identity crisis and reassessment.

There are several different components of self-concept: physical, academic, social, and transpersonal. The physical aspect of self-concept relates to that which is concrete: what we look like, our sex, height, weight, etc.; what kind of clothes we wear; what kind of car we drive; what kind of home we live in; and so forth. Our academic self-concept relates to how well we do in school or how well we learn. There are two levels: a general academic self-concept of how good we are overall and a set of specific content-related self-concepts that describe how good we are in math, science, language arts, social science, etc. The social self-concept describes how we relate to other people and the transpersonal self-concept describes how we relate to the supernatural or unknowns. Franken (1994) stated that there is a great deal of research which shows that the self-concept is, perhaps, the basis for all motivated behavior. It is the self-concept that gives rise to possible selves, and it is possible selves that create the motivation for behavior. This supports the idea that one's paradigm or world view and one's relationship to that view provide the boundaries and circumstances within which we develop our vision about possibilities. This is one of the major issues facing children and youth today (Huitt, 2004). There are some empirical evidences supporting to adolescents self concept in relation to their maternal employment.

Paulson, Hill & Holmbeck (1991) were conducted a study to distinguishing between perceived closeness and parental warmth and proved that children usually perceived greater closeness with their mothers than with their fathers. Parental attitudes and behavior are not simply inter-related, but they also produce diverse outcomes in the attitudes and behaviors of children.

Marsh (1992) was showed that the relationship of self-concept to school achievement is very specific. General self-concept and non-academic aspects of self-concept are not related to academic work; general academic achievement measures are related moderately to academic success.
Parish and McCluskey (1992) have studied the relationship between parenting styles and young adult’s self-concepts and evaluations of parents and showed that the opposite-sex parent’s level of warmth correlated with how each parent was rated. These findings suggest that mother’s warmth may impact upon how the mothers are perceived, and father’s nurture may impact upon how the mothers are perceived.

Steinberg (1993) has found that parents, who combine warmth with moderate levels of control, accepting their children’s strengths and weaknesses and setting high, yet achievable standards, help their children to develop strong self-esteem. Anita (1994) has provided an insight into the gender-differences in adolescent’s self concept and adjustment. It was depicted from the results that girls better adjusted in emotional, social, educational and total areas of adjustment compared to boys.

Richards & Duckett (1994) were made an attempt to study the maternal employment and adolescent’s daily experience and found that adolescents with part time employed mothers were likely to have higher self esteem than did counterparts with non employed or full time employed mothers. Trusty (1996) investigated the relationship among achievement, SES and self-concept in 392 fourth graders. Results indicate that low achieving low SES students generally had negative social and emotional self perceptions whereas low achieving higher SES students had more negative school related self perceptions.

Muni (1995) was observed that adolescents of employed mothers had a positive physical, intellectual and educational self-concept and were better adjusted than the children of housewives. Marsh & Yeung (1997) has been studied the casual effects of academic self-concept on academic achievement and found that not only adolescents’ level of academic self-concept affects their later performance in school, their self-concepts are also influenced by their prior academic achievement. Hence, the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement seems to be reciprocal in nature, with each affecting the other. Academic achievement and self-concept are strong predictors of each other. Individuals with a low self-concept have shown low commitment to academic performance. Mittal (1997) was compared the self-concept and scholastic achievement of the daughters of employed and non-employed mothers and observed that there was no significant difference in any of the areas of self-
concept and scholastic achievement. Muijs (1997) was also observed that academic self-concept and academic achievement were strong predictors of one another, even controlling for other variables and stability of both over time.

Muni and Panigrahi (1997) have examined the effect of maternal employment on adjustment on a total of 80 children (40 boys and 40 girls) from 6th and 7th grades of two different schools of Berhampur, Orissa, having equal number of employed mothers and housewives. Family demographic profile and adjustment inventory by Saraswat (1984) were administered and they found that girls were better adjusted in all the areas of adjustment pattern than boys.

Hewitt (1998) was documented that self-esteem is also influenced by social factors such as socio-economic status, accomplishments, having power to influence others, acting morally and receiving acceptance. Scott and Scott (1998) also suggested that although other factors such as social experience or peer groups are important in shaping a child, the influence of family remains an essential factor.

McClun and Merrell (1998) were made an attempt to see the relationship of perceived parenting styles, locus of control orientation, and self-concept and showed that an authoritarian style of parenting may contribute to the development of self-adequacy by being associated with maternal locus of orientation and stronger self-concept, while permissive and authoritarian styles of parenting may be associated with negative patterns of social-emotional development.

Deka and Kakker (1998) were studied the impact of maternal employment on perceived parental behavior and self-concept of Indian adolescents and found that maternal employment had no impact on adolescent’s self-concept, whereas perceived parental warmth and parental conflict did effect self-concept scores. Lau & Pun (1999) were conducted a study on pre-adolescents and it was found that the children with parents who disagreed on parenting disciplines tended to have poorer self-concepts than those with parents who agreed positively. They tended also to be more influenced by maternal evaluation.

Harvey, (1999) was studied cognitive skills, self esteem and behavior of adolescents in relation to their maternal employment and minimal or no effect of maternal employment was found.
Wintre and Yaffe (2000) have studied student’s adjustment to university life as a function of relationship with parents and showed that mutual reciprocity, parental support and autonomy positively relate to each other in case of authoritative parenting. Comparing the four different types of identified maternal and paternal groups the results showed that the impact of the perceived, identified maternal groups on paternal attitudes is very similar to the impact of the perceived, identified paternal groups on maternal attitudes. When fathers were authoritarian, mothers were evaluated also as more authoritarian; when mothers were more authoritative, fathers proved to show similar attitudes as well.

Deshmukh, (2000) has been designed a study to compare high and low self-concept groups of junior college students with anxiety, achievement motivation, intelligence, goad discrepancy and academic achievement, 832 self-concepts scores of students are classified into two extreme groups viz. high and low being the cutting points. Results revealed that high and low self-concept groups of Junior college students differ significantly on anxiety, n Ach, intelligence. These groups do not differ significantly on goal discrepancy and academic achievement.

D’Souza (2002) was conducted a study to determine the psychosocial development of children in the age group of 8-10 years. A convenience sampling was used to select 100 school children and maternal employment status was taken into consideration. The findings showed that the favorable development in the domains of emotional, social and cognitive were 99%, 100%, 97% respectively. There was no difference between the mean psychosocial development score of male and female children. As a whole, all the selected factors (like type of family, number of siblings, socio-economic status, maternal employment status) as well as parenting level had significant prediction on the psychological development score helps in grooming better adjusted children.

London (2004) was found that women who are employed tend to have higher self-esteem. This may translate to better quality maternal care and could offset the negative impact of reduced hours spent at home.
Blau (1999) also studied the effect of income on child development and showed that increased family income would improve the social-economic status (SES) of the family and enhance child development by enabling the family greater financial resources with which to purchase child development inputs such as books and educational trips.

Sphancer, Melick, Syre, and Spivey (2006) were suggested that a mother’s employment status affects the quality of emotional support she gives her children as well as the quantity of time she spends with them, factors which play a large a role in children’s development.

Heidi, Stephan, & Desrochers (2006) were conducted a study to see relations between maternal employment and young adults' work and family expectations, and self-efficacy. Individuals with employed mothers reported less traditional family attitudes. Although women with employed mothers expected to spend less time per week with families than women with non-employed mothers, men with employed mothers expected to spend more time with their families than men with non-employed mothers. Women reported greater general, parenting, and work self-efficacy than men, and individuals with employed mothers reported greater parenting self-efficacy. Men with consistently non-employed mothers were particularly likely to report lower self-efficacy.

Hangal, Vijayalaxmi and Aminabhavi (2007) has been assessed the impact of maternal employment on the self-concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of adolescents and revealed that the adolescent children of homemakers have significantly higher self-concept. It was also noticed that children of employed mothers have high emotional maturity and female children of employed mothers are highly achievement oriented.

Vijayalaxmi & Bowlby (2007) have found that the adolescent children of home makers have significantly higher self concept. The children of home makers have significantly higher self concept and higher achievement motivation than the children of employed mothers.

Kaur, Rana and Kaur (2009) has been studied the home environment and academic achievement as correlates of self-concept among adolescents. The results
revealed that self-concept to be positively correlated with academic achievement, though not significantly so. A significantly positive relationship of home environment components of protectiveness, conformity, reward, and nurturance with self-concept is revealed, thereby meaning that use of rewards and nurturance from parents should be done for positive self-concept development among adolescents. However, the correlation of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection components of home environment is significantly negative with self-concept among adolescents indicating that for positive self-concept development among adolescents, there should be less or no use of social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection.

Rath & Nanda, (2012) has been examined the effect of gender and academic competence on the self-concept of adolescents. The study was conducted on two hundred forty adolescents (120 academically competent adolescents securing 80% or more marks and 120 academically less-competent adolescents securing 50% or less marks) are randomly sampled from different urban colleges of Odisha. In each group of 120 adolescents, there are 60 boys and 60 girls. All the subjects are first year graduate students. The participants of all the four groups were compared with respect to their self-concept. The result indicated that academically competent adolescents have higher physical, moral, personal, family, social and overall self-concept than less-competent ones. The strength of association between personal self-concept and overall self-concept in boys was higher than the association found in girls. Similarly, the strength of association between physical self-concept and overall self-concept, as well as social self-concept and overall self-concept was higher in girls than that of the boys.

Sharma & Bajwa (2013) have studied the impact of maternal employment on self concept of adolescents. The study was conducted on 150 adolescents (n-75 of employed mothers, n-75 of homemakers). A significant difference was found between the self concept of children of working mothers and homemakers. The children of homemakers have high self concept rather than employed mothers.
Review on happiness in relation to relevant variables

Happiness is an emotion associated with feelings ranging from contentment and satisfaction to bliss and intense joy. A variety of philosophical, religious, psychological and biological approaches have been taken to defining happiness and identifying its sources. Happiness is an inner state of well being. A state of well being enables you to profit from your highest: thoughts, wisdom, intelligence, common sense, emotions, health, and spiritual values in your life. Seligman (2004) describes happiness as consisting of ‘positive emotions’ and ‘positive activities’. He further categorizes emotions related to the past, present and future. Positive emotions relating to the past include satisfaction, contentment, pride and serenity. Positive emotions relating to the future include optimism, hope and trust. Positive emotions about the present are divided into two categories: pleasure and gratifications. The bodily and higher pleasures are ‘pleasures of the moment’ and usually involve some external stimulus.

Greenberger and O’Neil, (1992) were studied the maternal employment and perceptions of young children towards their maternal employment. For this purpose, 238 mothers and 116 fathers provided checklist descriptions of their children's behavior; a smaller sample of parents and teachers also assessed the child's behavior 2 years later. There was no evidence of a key finding from a related study by Bronfenbrenner, Alvarez, and Henderson linking part-time employment with more positive maternal perceptions of sons. Indeed, maternal employment (typically, conditioned by mothers' level of education and child gender) was more strongly associated with fathers' and teachers' perceptions of children than with mothers' perceptions, and, in some cases, especially with fathers' and teachers' perceptions of daughters. Fathers perceived their children as having more problem behaviors when mothers were currently employed full time; fathers and teachers viewed children's behavior as more problematic when less-educated mothers had been employed during more years of the child's lifetime. Interpreting these and other findings, we emphasize differences between samples and changes in the ecology of family life. This study
underscores the notion that socially "relevant" research is likely to be highly responsive to time and social context.

Richards and Duckett (1994) was studied the relationship of maternal employment to early adolescent daily experience with and without parents. This study examines how maternal work may shape pre- and young adolescents' daily life experience. According to the procedures of the Experience Sampling Method (ESM), 10-13 year-old children carried electronic pagers for 1 week and completed self-report forms in response to random signals sent every other hour. Their daily experience did not differ by maternal employment status, with the following exceptions: full-time maternal employment was associated with more time doing homework with mothers and less time in general leisure, while part-time employment was associated with more time doing sports with parents. Relative to those with non-employed mothers, youth with part-time employed mothers reported more positive daily moods and higher self-esteem, while youth reported time with full-time employed mothers to be the friendliest. While children with employed mothers spent no less time with family, parents, friends, in class or alone, they spent more time alone with fathers.

Furnham and Cheng (2000) found that in a sample of 233 participants (75 males and 159 females), optimism and contentment were predictors of happiness, suggesting that having a brighter outlook and being content with what one has are related to happiness.

Cheng & Furnham (2003) has been studied the Self-esteem and relationship with parents were also found to have direct positive impacts on happiness in a sample of 234 participants. Maternal authoritativeness was the only direct predictor of happiness when maternal and paternal rearing styles were examined together, suggesting that reasonable discipline exercised by mothers toward their children was particularly beneficial in enhancing their offspring's self-esteem and happiness.

A study conducted by Natvig, Albrektsen, & Qvarnstrom (2003) explored the relationships between happiness and the experience of stress at school, and personal and social factors among 887 Norwegian school adolescents participating in a World
Health Organization project on health-promoting schools. Pupils who reported being very happy also reported experiencing the lowest level of stress and the highest level of general and school self-efficacy and support from teachers and pupils. However, happiness in this study was measured by a single item question with no reported validity and reliability.

In a study conducted by Mahon and Yarcheski (2002), happiness was found to buffer the stress associated with developmental challenges of early adolescents, and play an important role in the development of health promotion strategies during this stormy period.

Bianchi (2000) was studied the effect of maternal employment and time spend with children. Employed mothers seek ways to maximize time with children: They remain quite likely to work part-time or to exit from the labor force for some years when their children are young; they also differ from non-employed mothers in other uses of time (housework, volunteer work, leisure). In addition, changes in children's lives (e.g., smaller families, the increase in preschool enrollment, and the extended years of financial dependence on parents as more attend college) are altering the time and money investments that children require from parents. Within marriage, fathers are spending more time with their children than in the past, perhaps increasing the total time children spend with parents even as mothers work more hours away from home.

Shek (2002) has demonstrated that positively perceived parental qualities, parental styles, parental characteristics, and dyadic functioning predict positive adolescent LS; findings also suggested that paternal characteristics were more important than maternal characteristics in predicting LS in both males and females.

Hackney & Glenn (2003) have conducted a meta-analysis of 34 recent studies published between 1990 and 2001 also found that religiosity has a salutary relationship with psychological adjustment, being related to less psychological distress, more life satisfaction, and better self-actualization.
Linley et al. (2004, unpublished) were found that children’s intrinsic values were associated with increased happiness and LS, whereas extrinsic values were associated with lower teacher behaviour ratings; i.e. children with greater extrinsic values were perceived as displaying more negative behaviour than those with greater intrinsic values.

Leung, McBride-Chang & Lai (2004) have found that perceived maternal concern was positively related to academic competence and that both were significant in predicting concurrent and longitudinal LS. More specifically, this study showed that overall satisfaction with family, school, and self significantly decreased as age increased, however satisfaction with friends did not significantly change over time.

Lyubomirsky, Schkade and Sheldon (2005) have found that about 50% of one's sadness depends on one's genes. This is shown by studying identical twins and learning that their happiness is 50% correlated even when growing up in different houses. About ten to fifteen percent is a result of various measurable variables, such as socioeconomic status, marital status, health, income, and others. The remaining 40% results from actions that individuals deliberately engage in for the purpose of becoming happier. However, these actions may vary between persons. Also, exercise has been shown to increase one's level of well-being significantly.

Nomaguchi, & Milkie (2006) were studied the impact of maternal employment on child outcomes with various alternative care and mother-child interactions examined as intervening factors. Maternal employment did not show any significant relationship with children’s unhappy mood and maternal employment was only related to children’s anxiety, when types of childcare, hours spent in school settings and participation in organised activities were controlled for. The children of working mothers were found to be less anxious than children of homemaker mothers.

Moreira-Almeida, Francisco and Harold, (2006) have documented a systematic review of 850 research papers on the topic concluded that the majority of well-conducted studies found that higher levels of religious involvement are positively associated with indicators of psychological well-being (life satisfaction, happiness, positive affect, and higher morale) and with less depression, suicidal thoughts and behavior, drug/alcohol use/abuse.
Liesbeth (2007) was conducted a study and found no significant correlation between religiosity and individual happiness in Netherlands and Denmark, countries that have lower rates of religion than the United States.

O’Brien & Catherine (2008) defined sustainable happiness as the pursuit of happiness that does not exploit other people, the environment or future generations. Bringing sustainability and happiness together within the concept of sustainable happiness holds significant possibilities for individual community and global well-being.

Scoppa and Ponzo, (2009) were analyzes the determinants of individuals subjective well-being (happiness) in Italy by estimating micro econometric happiness equations in order to examine the effects of socio-demographic characteristics and economic conditions on subjective evaluations of happiness. Consistent with the findings in other advanced countries they find that income and wealth increase happiness and that unemployment are extremely bad for subjective well-being. In addition, they obtain some novel and interesting results for Italy including the following: income obtained by public transfers has a limited impact on subjective well-being (happiness); education increase happiness

**Review on optimism in relation to relevant variables**

Optimism is also an important variable of the present study. Optimism refers to the degree to which an individual holds positive expectancies for their future. More specifically, individuals who believe that the desired goal is attainable will overcome adversity to reach that goal. These individuals, in turn, expect a positive outcome from their effort and are properly called optimists. We made an attempt to understand the nature of optimism among adolescents in relation to their maternal employment with the help of empirical evidences given below.

Saxena and Rani (1996) revealed that non-working women experienced greater life satisfaction as compared with working women and attributed their happiness to the home environment.
Seligman’s (1996) has been conducted a study on explanatory style and suggested that the intervening variable connecting self-esteem and achievement is the student's level of optimism or the tendency to see the world as a benevolent (good things will probably happen) or malevolent (bad things will probably happen).

A study was conducted by Atkinson (1999) showed a percentage of students will work hard to achieve a task they do not enjoy, solely to maintain their high grade point average or high class rank. This reflects back on the student’s attitude toward success. Clark and Watson (1999) were indicated that positive affectivity is highly heritable, with the rearing environment having a modest effect on the development of this trait. Snyder (2000) was indicates that a hopeful adult has a certain profile; these adults have experienced just as many setbacks but believe that they can overcome diversity and can cope with the challenges that they have to face. Hopeful adults continue to have positive internal dialogue, talking themselves through difficult situations, focusing on their own successes rather than their failures and experiencing obstacles in attaining their valued goals. These obstacles are often broken down into smaller, manageable obstacles and are experienced with fewer negative emotions.

Affleck, Tennen & Apter (2001) have studied optimism and health in terms of physical symptoms, coping strategies and negative affect for those suffering from rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, and fibromyalgia. They found that optimists were not more likely than pessimists to report pain alleviation due to their coping strategies, though they did find significance in the psychological well-being of the two groups.

Suldo & Huebner, (2004) have found life satisfaction is negatively linked to violent problem behaviours among adolescents, such as physical fighting and weapon carrying, with depression, anxiety, neuroticism, loneliness, symptoms of psychological disorders and teacher ratings of school-discipline problems and they showed that high levels of life satisfaction in adolescents reduced the likelihood of subsequent externalizing behaviours. Park (2004) was documented that life satisfaction and positive affect mitigate the negative effects of stressful life events and work against the development of psychological and behavioural problems in youth. Subjective well-being proves important in its own right but additionally contributes to a variety of positive outcomes such as acting as a buffer against a variety of negative outcomes.
Lopoo (2007) has been examined the relationship between a mother’s employment and the after-school activities of her adolescent children and found a positive relationship between maternal employment and participation in lessons after school for the children of married women with at least a high school education, and found that maternal employment is also positively related to sports participation for the children of unmarried women. This suggests that maternal employment affects adolescent children’s behavior through the additional economic resources that it brings into a household.

Staats, Hupp & Hagley (2008) have been used positive psychology to explore academic honesty, by identifying positive traits that were displayed by heroes and then determining if the presence of these traits in students could be used to predict their future intent to cheat. Their research has resulted in an effective working model of heroism in the context of the academic environment.

Kawaguchi and Miyazaki (2009) have found that men raised by full-time working mothers are less likely to support traditional gender roles. Tanaka (2008) was tested the role model effect and found that full-time maternal employment has a negative effect only on sons’ educational attainment. Both of these studies treat maternal employment as exogenous.

Ruhm (2008) was conducted a study on maternal employment in relation to child development and also studied whether home environment was the driving force in the relation between early maternal employment and later child outcomes. Ruhm’s analyses on child outcomes included a variable measuring the home environment that consists of a mix of observational and parent-reported items assessing the emotional support and cognitive stimulation received by children through their home environment, planned events, and family surroundings. Ruhm found that a better home environment benefits child outcomes. Negative, though not always significant, signs of the interaction terms with maternal work hours suggest that this positive effect of home environment is smaller when mothers work more hours.
Review on psychological distress in relation to relevant variables

Psychological distress (symptoms of anger, anxiety and depression) is surprisingly common among adolescents. For example, approximately one-quarter of adolescents experience a major depressive disorder (Lewinsohn, Rohde, & Seeley, 1998) and approximately one-half of older adolescents report moderate or high levels of depressive symptoms (Rosenthal & Schreiner, 2000). Psychological distress is viewed as an emotional condition that involves negative views of the self, others and the environment and is characterised by unpleasant subjective states such as feeling tense, worried, worthless and irritable (Barlow and Durand, 2005). These subjective states can reduce the emotional resilience of individuals and impact on their ability to enjoy life and to cope with pain, disappointment and sadness. Belsky and Eggebeen (1991) have studied the impact of maternal work on children’s socio-emotional behavior and the impacts of employment was not found on psychological and behavioural, adjustment factor, based on the behaviour problem index. Maternal employment has a negative effect on compliance. No effect on behaviour problems of insecurity was found. And also found negative effect more pronounced for shy children.

MacEwen and Barling (1991) were revealed the impact of working mothers’ inter role conflict and work dissatisfaction (via, stress, negative mood and parenting behaviour) on children’s behavioural problems. 147 employed women from a local hospital with under-16 children were selected and OLS regression, path-analysis were conducted. Any problem like - attention problems / immaturity, anxiety / withdrawal were not examined. Only working mothers in the study especially inter role conflict but also job-dissatisfaction affects all the three behavioural factors negatively. Much of the effect is mediated via mother’s cognitive difficulties / negative mood, both leading to dysfunctional parenting behaviour.

Menaghan and Parcel (1991) have studied the linkages between employment complexity and home environment. 795 employed mothers taken from the NLSY supplement 1986 survey and Home Observation was used for measurement of the home environment and found that occupational complexity has a positive effect on
home environment. Long working hours have a negative effect on home environment in families with more children.

Parcel and Menaghan (1994) were emphasized on family social capital and parental working conditions as important intervening factors in the maternal work and children outcome relationship. Maternal employment does not show any effect on children behavioural problems. A significant effect of current working schedules only occurs when interaction effects with current occupational complexity of the mother is assessed. It is also found that when occupational complexity is low, then the less the number of hours worked, the less is the adverse effect on children’s behaviour. Number of hours makes less difference when complexity of occupation was average.

Brackney and Karabenick (1995) have found psychological distress adversely impacted students’ academic self-efficacy beliefs and ability to effectively regulate a study environment. It was these factors that mediated the negative impact of students’ distress on their actual achievement.

Duckett, Elena, Richards, Maryse (1995) have studied the relationship between maternal working hours and the well-being of adolescent children and found the significant relationships primarily were due to differences between children of full-time employed and non-employed mothers, with full-time employment linked to more positive experience. Full-time maternal employment was related to higher self-esteem and to more positive daily affect and arousal. Although maternal employment was not related to percentage of time spent with mothers.

Menaghan and Parcel (1995) were studied the impact of changes in family structure and maternal employment on changes in home environment and suggested that maternal employment is not necessarily better than non-employment, at least not from the children’s point of view.

Presser (1995) was noted, little research has actually examined how the amount of maternal time is related to children’s well-being. Most research on maternal time assesses time indirectly through questions that ask mothers about activities they do with children.

Wagner, Cohen & Brook (1996) have conducted a study on parent-adolescent relationships moderators of the effects of stressful life events on a sample of 517 adolescents and their families. Data were obtained using Coddington Life
events record, child report of parental behaviour and Diagnostic interview schedule for children. Results of the study revealed that adolescents who reported relatively warm parenting with both mother and father had a smaller association of stressful events with symptoms of depression as compared to other adolescents. Further, those adolescents who reported relatively harsher discipline by both parents had a higher association of stress with depressive symptoms as compared with other adolescents.

Mittal (1998) has revealed that daughters of non-working mothers were relatively higher on achievement and confidence, but they suffered from greater inferiority feelings as compared to the daughter of working mothers. McLanahan, (1998) was examined precise measures of mothers being there had shown the importance of having adolescents supervised by parents or others to ensure they do not stray into problem behaviors.

A comparative study was conducted by Tomer, (1998) on the impact of work by the mothers on child health was conducted on Bilai. In this they compared a sample of 200 working educated mother and their 408 children with 200 non-working mothers and their 440 children by observational method. Results shows that physical and mental health status showed a significant correlation with mother’s length of service, type of substitute childcare and type of mother’s profession. It identified that a significant number of children in study group were reported to have psychological problems. Working mothers produced a significant nutritional and psychological impact on the children.

Galinsky (1999) was suggested a possible gender difference in outcomes of maternal employment; suggesting daughters of employed mothers would report higher levels of feeling loved, supported, and understood by mothers compared to daughters of stay-at-home mothers, while boys would show no difference. Menanghan et al (2000) have studied behavioural problems of adolescents in relation to their maternal employment and found that children of non working mothers were more prone to oppositional behavioural problems.

Jones, Forehand, & Beach (2000) were studied the effect of maternal and paternal parenting on adolescent’s psychological adjustment and found that only
maternal behaviour (i.e., firm control) during adolescence was independently associated with secure adult relationships in both male and female offspring.

Joshi and Verropoulou (2000) have studied maternal employment and child outcome and found that maternal employment in the first year of a child’s life had some negative (and positive) associations with cognitive and behavioural outcomes, but only for reading was the negative relationship significant. When full-time and part-time employment was considered separately, it was the full-time employment that had the most significant negative effect. On the other hand, employment when the child was aged 1-2 or 3-4 showed small positive associations, particularly with freedom from anxiety. According to Heaven (2001) adolescents from authoritative homes have high levels of competence, adjustment, academic competence, psychosocial development and have low levels of problem behaviour and psychological problems.

A study was conducted by McHale, Susan, Crouter and Corinna, Tucker (2001) on free time activities linked with adjustments in early adolescence and found that mother-child engaged time measured as total time children spent with mothers in particular activities including hobbies, sports, reading, playing with toys and games, outdoor play, watching television, and hanging out was related to less depression of the child.

Koschanska (2001) has found that insecurely attached children show more negative emotions (fear, distress and anger) while securely attached children show more joyfulness, even in the same situation.

Han, Waldfogel, and Brooks-Gunn (2001) were revealed the effects of early maternal employment on socio-emotional and cognitive development of the child. Data from the 1986 and the 1990 surveys of NLSY were used. OLS Behaviour problem index and two of its subscales: externalizing and internalizing problems were used in these surveys. It was clear from the results that maternal employment increases the number of behavioural problems in the child’s life. Maternal employment also has a negative effect on externalizing problems. Children from high-income families exhibit more externalizing problems if their mothers worked.
Rask, Astedt-Kurki, & Laippala (2002) have examined adolescent subjective well-being in order to understand the factors that may promote life satisfaction and positive affect of adolescents. These factors mitigate the negative effects of stressful life events and work against the development of psychological and behavioural problems. Adolescent subjective well-being was conceptualized by means of four different dimensions: satisfaction, ill-being, knowledge and activities related to well-being. The values were operationalized by eight core ideas from which principal components analysis identified 10 factors representing the realized values. Data was gained by self-report questionnaires. The results revealed that most of the respondents were satisfied with life. There was no statistically significant difference in global satisfaction between girls and boys. The findings suggest that certain values such as personal equilibrium, safe family relations, and family type are predictors of adolescent global subjective well-being. They concluded that while assessing and promoting adolescent well-being it is important to pay special attention to the realization of values in life and not merely to appreciation of things.

Blesky (2002) was conducted a study and showed that children who had experienced 30 or more hours per week of non maternal care displayed all of the signs of neediness (demands a lot of attention, demands must be met immediately, easily jealous), assertiveness (bragging/boasting, argues a lot), disobedience/defiance (talks out of turn, disobedient at school, defiant-talks back to staff, disrupts school discipline), and aggression (gets into many fights, cruelty-bullying-meanness, physically attacks others, destroys own things).

Rohner, & Britner (2002) have studied the worldwide mental health correlates of parental Acceptance-rejection and found that lack of maternal warmth has been related to depression among children. Youngblade (2003) was studied the long-term socio-emotional effects of maternal employment. Maternal employment was found to have negative effects on acting out behaviour, frustrations tolerance (teacher rating), and are more likely to be hitting behaviour (peer-rating) and meanness (peer-rating). Some of the negative effects were found to be mediated via instable childcare arrangements. More negative effects for boys’ than for girls’ and for working class children’s than for middle class children’s hitting behaviour.
A study was conducted by Ensminger, Hanson, Riley and Juon (2003) to examine the relationship of mothers' psychological distress reported during their children’s adolescence on depressive disorder and educational achievement of their adult children. Results reported that daughters of mothers with persistent maternal psychological distress had two and a half times the risk of lifetime depressive disorder, but no increased risk of high school dropout. For sons, mothers' psychological distress was not related to depression but was related to poorer educational attainment. They concluded mothers' depressed feelings during the childrearing years relate to their children's depression and educational attainment as measured in adulthood. The patterns differ for sons and daughters.

A longitudinal study was conducted by Jackson (2003) in Pennsylvania aimed at the effects of family and neighborhood characteristics on the behavioral and cognitive development of poor black children. The study was conducted in 178 single mothers of black families. It investigates the relations among family resources i.e., mother’s employment, income from employment and child developmental outcomes (behavioral problems, brood reading, calculation) in the early school years. Result of the study indicated that behavior problems of children depend on, the child’s gender, the mothers’ depressive symptoms and to some extent her employment status.

Santrock (2004) was documented that the children of working parents do not see their parents from the time they leave for school in the morning until about 6 or 7 PM. They are called latch key children because they are given the key of their home, take the key to school, and then use it to let themselves into the home while their parents are still at work. These children had negative latch key experiences. Without limits and parental supervision these children find their way in to trouble more easily, possibly stealing, vandalizing or abusing a sibling. After coming from school back to home children find the door locked from outside and wait for their parents to open the lock.

A study was conducted by Hyde, Else-Quest, Goldsmith & Biesamz (2004) in USA to find out the association of mother’s employment with child’s temperament and behavior problems. The study investigated spill over from the mother role to work role in a sample of more than 300 families and associated mother’s work
outcomes with child’s difficult temperament at different age groups such as 3 yrs, 4 yrs, 6 yrs, 8 yrs and 12 year. The result found that the maternal sense of parenting competence and maternal depression produce behavioral problems in children.

A study was conducted by Moatz (2004) on prevalence and risk factors of emotional and behavioral problems among school children and adolescents in Saudi Arabia. 1313 male students were included in the study. Among that 109(8.3%) students were emotionally and behaviorally disturbed students. Among studied socio-demographic variables, educational level, and mother working status were associated with higher risk of developing emotional and behavioral disturbances in these children.

Park (2004) was studied the role of well being in positive youth development and documented that life satisfaction and positive affect mitigate the negative effects of stressful life events and work against the development of psychological and behavioural problems in youth.

Hock & Lutz (2004) have revealed that there existed a positive relation between maternal separation anxiety and children’s anxieties and separation from their mothers. This is perceived as a threat to the child’s well being and/or to her own psychological equilibrium. Such anxiety may be reflected in feelings of worry, sadness, or guilt. Dwairy (2004) examined the relationship between parental styles and psychosocial adjustment of gifted and non gifted adolescents. Results indicated that parents of gifted adolescents tend to be more authoritative and less authoritarian than parents of non-gifted adolescents. The attitudes of the gifted adolescents toward their parents were more positive than those of the non-gifted adolescents. The gifted displayed higher self-esteem and fewer identity disorders, phobias, and conduct disorders than the non-gifted adolescents. The authoritative parental style correlates positively with the mental health of both gifted and non gifted adolescents, while the authoritarian parenting style impacts negatively on the mental health of the gifted, but not of the non-gifted adolescents. The study results indicated that the authoritarian parenting style is a crucial factor that influences the well-being of gifted children and may affect their psychological adjustment.
Aizer (2004) was conducted a study to see the effect of supervision after school on child behaviour and found that the children without adult supervision were more likely to engage in anti-social or risky potentially dangerous behaviour. Brackett et al (2004) have found that high emotionally intelligent individual is less likely to engage in self destructive or negative behaviours.

McCarty, Zimmerman, Digiuseppe & Christakis (2005) were conducted a research on parental emotional support and subsequent internalizing and externalizing problems among children and suggest a relationship exists between the level of emotional support provided in the home, and child behavior problems.

Sarita (2006) studied the psychosocial problems of adolescent children of working and non-working mothers and found that adolescent children of working mothers were better than the adolescent children of non working mothers in the problem areas of finances, living conditions and employment.

Joshi and Bogen (2007) have studied the impact of mothers’ nonstandard working on their children and found that nonstandard working hours have negative effect on children’s behaviour in low income families with working mother.

Ruhm (2008) was conducted a study to see the effect of maternal employment on adolescent’s development and the study distinguishes between children on the basis of their socio-economic status, and shows that maternal employment has negative consequences on advantaged adolescents cognitive development and obesity. These results suggest that maternal employment has small average effects but sharply disparate impacts across socio-economic groups. Maternal employment has favourable results for cognitive development of children aged 10 -11 from disadvantaged backgrounds but the estimates suggest substantial and uniformly negative consequences of maternal employment for advantaged youths.

Gennetian, Loopo and London (2008) have studied maternal working hours and adolescent’s school outcome and found that full time work increases the risk of behavioural problems, skipping school, and decreases school performance.

Brown (2010) has revealed that children living in two-biological-parent families show better academic, behavioral, and emotional well-being than children living in other family forms.
Deb, Chatterjee & Walsh (2010) have made an attempt to study the anxiety among adolescents in Kolkata city, India. Specifically, the study compared anxiety across gender, school type, socio-economic background and mothers’ employment status. The study also examined adolescents’ perceptions of quality time with their parents. A group of 460 adolescents (220 boys and 240 girls), aged 13-17 years were selected to participate in the study via a multi-stage sampling technique. The data were collected using a self-report semi-structured questionnaire and a standardized psychological test, the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. 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. More boys were anxious than girls. Adolescents from Bengali medium schools were more anxious than adolescents from English medium schools. Adolescents belonging to the middle class (middle socio-economic group) suffered more anxiety than those from both high and low socio-economic groups. Adolescents with working mothers were found to be more anxious. Results also show that a substantial proportion of the adolescents perceived they did not receive quality time from fathers and mothers. A large number of them also did not feel comfortable to share their personal issues with their parents (60.0% for fathers and 40.0% for mothers).

Nandwana, Pareek & Upadhyay (2010) were made an exploratory attempt to examine daily activity profile and the wellbeing of children of employed and non-employed mothers. A representative sample of 180 mothers (90 children of employed mothers and 90 children of non-employed mothers) belonging to nuclear families of Udaipur, Rajasthan were selected. Data were collected using self-structured Interview schedule. The results of the study revealed that the employed mothers’ children’s major part of after school time was devoted to skill classes, academics and watching TV and least time was given to interaction with persons, parents and play. In comparison to this, non-employed mothers’ children’s, major portion of after school time is devoted to TV watching, academics, skill classes and playing videogames. In both the cases, less time is given to play during after school hours. In employed mother’s children, more than 80% mothers reported that their children were always facing wellbeing problems as compare to non-employed mother’s children. The results of the study revealed that highly significant difference was found between employed
and non employed mothers’ children in their after school hours as well as well-being of children.

Morrissey et al, (2011) have studied the BMI of children in relation to their maternal employment and showed that the increasing the total time a mother was employed was associated with an increase in BMI of her children.

Morril (2011) was studied the effects of maternal employment on the health of school-age children and found that maternal employment was associated with adverse health events for children.

**Review on Achievement motivation in relation to relevant variables**

McClelland (1963) used the term “need for achievement,” which he defined as “striving for success in competition with some standard of excellence.” The need to achieve, which is expressed in a variety of activities and various roles, has both intrinsic and extrinsic aspects. The achievement-motivated person aims at reaching a standard determined by an inner need for superior performance and at the same time is motivated by the need for esteem, prestige, and status. This paradigm was originally introduced by Max Weber in his attempt to explain why economic and social modernization occurred in 18th century Europe rather than in other countries. Weber (1930) attributed this development to the Protestant value system, identifying aspects of the Protestant ethic which in his view facilitated the rise of capitalism: individualism, activism, planning ahead, and task orientation. Inspired by Weber’s theory, McClelland (1953) defined the individual correlate of the Protestant Ethic as the “high need for achievement”. McClelland (1953) identified certain aspects of socialization which, he claimed, affect the need to achieve (e.g., type of authority pattern within the family, independence, and parents’ occupational aspirations). Following the work of McClelland (1961, 1965), most researcher’s defined achievement in terms of competition and individual success. Personal desires, independent decisions, personal accomplishments, and self-actualization were stressed. The motive to achieve was thought to reflect a motive to achieve for the
‘self,’ and, as such, achievement was defined as individual accomplishment for one's own sake. The achievement motivation construct has been extensively criticized, with the arguments centering on the difficulty of isolating and identifying the specific environmental variables that generate achievement motivation. There are some studies related to achievement motivation.

Velna (1991) was studied achievement motivation and academic achievement in the school of Mexican and Anglo-American eighth grade students and found that there was no significant difference in the relationship between achievement motivation scores and the grade point averages and no significant difference in the relationship of boys and girls.

Wang (1991) was found that the effect of achievement motivation, goal acceptance and goal difficulty alone and interactively on task performance was significant. Alessandri, (1992) was conducted a study and revealed that daughters of employed mothers found to have higher academic achievement, greater career success, more nontraditional career choices, and greater occupational commitment.

Vijaylaxmi and Natesan (1992) has ben conducted a study on factors influencing academic achievement. The study conducted on 100 students studying in XI standard of Coimbatore city. Findings showed that girls had a higher mean academic achievement compared to boys. On an average, girls had greater achievement motivation than boys.

Kaur (1992) conducted a study on child rearing practices, adjustment and academic achievement of children of working and non-working mothers. A sample of 400 subjects (200 children of working mothers and 200 children of non-working mothers) was taken. Tools used were, Perceptions of Mothers Child Rearing Attitudes by Mohan and Kaur (1989); Bell’s Adjustment Inventory and Annual Examination Marks in four subjects viz. English, Math, Science and Social Science for measuring
academic achievement. The results showed that the children of working mothers perceived their mothers child rearing practices to be significantly better than the children of non-working mothers in the areas of academic fields and demonstration of love and it was also found that children of working mothers showed significantly better emotional adjustment as compared to children of non-working mothers. Male children of non-working mothers made significantly higher scores in the academic achievement as compared to male children of working mothers. Female children of working mothers made higher scores in total academic achievement as compared to female children of non-working mothers.

Vandell and Ramanan (1992) were studied the effect of maternal employment on children from low income families and showed that early maternal employment has a positive effect on reading and math scores for disadvantaged children.

Philip's (1993) study showed that achievement motivation has Low relationship with the achievement of students. Etaugh (1993) was also studied the effect of maternal employment on children and shown that maternal employment is unrelated to academic achievement for girls and negatively related for boys.

Tiwari and Bansal (1994) from a sample of 885 girls of four different places of UP selected only 100 effective samples on the basis of marks obtained by them in UP Board examination. On the basis of their marks 50 girls were treated as high achievers and 50 other were low achievers. Their self-concept was measured. High achievers exhibited superiors self concept as compared to the self-concepts exhibited by low achievers.

Bogenschneider and steinberg (1994) has been studied the maternal employment and academic achievement of children and showed that boys from two parent families had lower grades when their mothers were working full time.

Phalet and Lens (1995) have investigated achievement motivation and family orientation among Turkish and Flemish adolescents living in Belgium. They found that Turkish and Flemish adolescents were equally motivated to achieve academically. The Turkish adolescents indicated that achievement was important for them.
individually, but in addition, Turkish achievement motivation was accompanied by group loyalty beliefs.

Muller (1995) was studied maternal employment, parental involvement and achievement among adolescents and revealed that children with mothers who were employed full time performed less well than did those with mothers employed part time or not at all. He also found that children performed best when their mothers worked part time, even after taking into account aspects of student’s background.

Anitha (1996) was found that achievement motivation has a determining influence on the achievement of students. Mittal (1997) was compared the scholastic achievement of the daughters of employed and non-employed mothers and observed that there was no significant difference in scholastic achievement.

Wentzel (1998) was studied the effects of social support on achievement motivation and found that parental support indirectly influenced early adolescents’ achievement through its effect on school and class related interest.

Mahmood (1998) was studied child behaviour on the basis of their personal values, career aspiration, socio-economic status and academic achievement and found that academic achievement correlated positively and significantly with socio-economic status, knowledge value and occupational aspiration and negatively with power value

Ayishabi and Kuruvilla (1998) have studied the effects of maternal employment on achievement motivation of school children. It was found that motivation for achievement which was strong determinant of academic performance was found to be unaffected by maternal employment.

Muni and Panigrahi (1998) have studied maternal employment in relation to adjustment of adolescents and revealed that children of working mothers were better adjusted than those of non working mothers. Maternal employment was not a burden rather it was an asset for children.

VanZile-Tamsen and Livingston (1999) have showed that students who value the outcome put forth more effort and try more strategies to achieve the
outcome. High achievers work harder and will try different means to accomplish success.

An exploratory research was conducted by Fernander (1999) to assess the impact of working mothers on the female children. The sample consisted of 60 children-30 boys and 30 girls in the age group of 10-16 years. The findings showed that the mother-child relationship was 86.6% with working mother’s children and 96.6% with non-working mother’s children. Boys of both categories at home were more exposed to punishment. The social adjustment showed that out of 30 children (respondents) of working mothers, 3 were unable to build social relationship and 12 sometimes. In the non working mother’s children 13 were always able to build social relationship and 15 sometimes.

Ansari (1999) was conducted a study on the adjustment and achievement of the children of working and non-working mothers and found that the children of mothers working showed better adjustment patterns as compared to the children of non-working mothers. Rosenfeld et al. (2000) have found that students with high support from peers, parents and teachers had better grades in a large, representative sample of middle and high school students than those without such support.

Horwood and Fergusson (1999) were conducted a longitudinal study of maternal labour force participation and child academic achievement and found that an initially positive association between academic attainment and mother’s employment was accounted for by confounders - socio-economic status, maternal education, child IQ and early mother-child interaction. However, their inclusion did not uncover any negative long-term effect in late adolescence.

Ermisch and Francesconi (2000) have found a negative effect of mothers' full-time employment during the time the child is zero to five years old on the child's educational attainment as a young adult. The effect of mothers' part-time employment status is also negative, but lesser and insignificant. Similarly, the effect of father's employment is small and negative but not always significant. Accordino et al, (2000) have revealed that those students who hold a high attitude of success work hard to
achieve success, regardless of the task. High achievement motivation and high achievement may be associated with normal perfectionism.

Malefo (2000) was studied psycho-social factors and academic performance among African women and found a significant positive relationship between academic performance and the family environment factor. These results suggest that clearly defined and enforced limits and rules in the family have a positive effect on the adolescent’s academic as well as overall performance. Marchant, Paulson & Rothlisberg (2001) have raised the point that parental involvement at home and at school differentially related to student motivation and suggested investigations of more relational aspects such as parental involvement in academic and nonacademic activities.

Hoffereth, et al. (2001) were showed that children in two-earner homes will likely do worse in school than peers from traditional families and also studied that the activities missing from the lives of children in employed mother homes appear to be the very ones which foster tractable and cooperative behavior.

Pomerantz, Saxon and Altermatt (2002) have conducted study on making the grade but feeling distressed gender differences in academic performance of internal distress. The sample consisted of 932 elementary school children (466 girls, 466 boys) in two lower to middle-class school districts in the Midwest. For assessing academic performance, Children’s grades in four subjects, language, social studies, science and maths were obtained. Internal distress was assessed with a measure designed by the researcher. Results reported that, girls out performed boys across all 4 subjects and were more prone to internal distress than boys.

Arya and Kistwaria (2002) have revealed that the involvement of adolescent daughters in household activities of employed homemakers was more than corresponding non-employed homemakers. A majority of the adolescent daughters of non-employed mothers devoted more time to their studies in comparison to the corresponding group. A comparatively higher percentage of the adolescent daughters of employed mothers were not participating in co-curricular activities.
Baum, (2004) was made an attempt to study the long term effects of maternal employment on child’s achievement using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth and found that maternal employment remained positively related to grades in the first two age categories, adolescent maternal employment yielded a small, but negative effect on grades. A model, using multivariate regression analysis that controlled for differences not caused by maternal employment, found adolescent maternal employment yielding a statistically significant negative effect on grades. The results of the study also showed that maternal employment during the child’s adolescent years significantly reduces academic grades for both boys and girls.

Aughinbaugh and Gittleman (2004) have conducted a research on the effect of maternal employment on adolescents behaviour of two-parent or middle- to higher-income families and found few or slightly favorable effects on outcomes such as adolescent achievement and teen childbearing.

Sirin (2005) was conducted a study on the role of social-economic status on academic achievement through a meta analysis. This meta-analysis revealed all relevant literature on SES and academic achievement in journal articles published between 1990 and 2000. The results showed a medium to strong positive SES-achievement relation. The strength of this relation, however, varied depending on the unit, the data, the range of SES variable, and the type of achievement measure. Although income was a factor in determining SES in most of the studies analyzed, and never discussed the isolated effect of family income on academic achievement.

Saini (2005) was studied the family environment and academic achievement of adolescent children of working and non-working mothers. The results have shown that the children of working mothers were more independent than children of non-working mothers. The results also indicated more control in the families of non-working mothers as compared to working mothers and the higher Mean scores of adolescent children of working others indicates that these children are academically better than those of the children of non-working mothers.

Sud and Sujata (2006) have conducted a study on academic performance in relation to self-handicapping test anxiety and study habits of high school children. The sample comprised of 200 children from government senior secondary school of Shimla city. Self handicapping questionnaire (Sujata, 2003) and Palsane’s study habit
inventory were administered to assess children’s self-handicapping and study habits respectively. To assess the anxiety level, Sud and Sud’s test anxiety inventory was administered. Findings showed that self-handicapping and anxiety have adverse influence on academic performance of school children.

Hungal, Vijayalaxmi and Aminabhavi (2007) conducted a study on 150 adolescents (12 to 15 years) to assess the impact of maternal employment of the self-concept, emotional maturity and achievement motivation of adolescents. It includes 75 adolescent of employed mothers and 75 adolescents of home makers studying in 6th and 8th standard in Hubli-Dharward cities of North Karnataka. Data was collected using emotional maturity scale and achievement motivation scales. The results showed that the adolescent children of home makers have significantly higher self-concept than children of employed mothers.

A study was conducted by Joshi, Pamela, bogen, kaaren (2007) on non-standard schedules and young children’s behavioural outcome among working mothers of low income families and its influences on school age children’s behavioral outcomes. They examined low income working mother and their children and found that maternal non-standard schedules are associated with negative behavioural outcomes for young children. The negative effect of non-standard schedules on behaviour problems indirectly through increased parenting stress.

Cawley and Liu (2007) have documented the association between maternal employment and children cognitive outcome and found that employed women spend significantly less time reading to their children, helping with homework, and in educational activities in general. The results suggested that lower parental time investments may explain the frequently (but not always) found negative association between maternal employment and children's cognitive development in the United States.

Goldberg, Prause, Lucas & Himsel (2008) have documented maternal employment and children’s achievement. A meta-analysis of 68 studies used random effects models to examine whether children's achievement differed depending on whether their mothers were employed. Four achievement outcomes were emphasized: formal tests of achievement and intellectual functioning, grades, and teacher ratings of
cognitive competence. When all employment was compared with non employment for combined and separate achievement outcomes without moderators, effects were non significant. Small beneficial effects of part-time compared with full-time employment were apparent for all achievement outcomes combined and for each individual achievement outcome. Significant sample-level moderators of the associations between maternal employment and achievement for all outcomes combined included family structure, and socioeconomic status; associations were positive when samples were majority one-parent families and mixed one and two-parent families, and not middle-upper class. Analyses of child gender indicated more positive effects for girls. Children's age was a significant moderator for the outcome of intellectual functioning. The identification of sample-level moderators of the relationship between maternal employment and children's achievement highlights the importance of social context in understanding work-family linkages.

Kenny, et al (2010) were studied the achievement motivation among urban adolescents and results from the full canonical correlation model revealed that work hope, career planning, and autonomy support shared 37.5% of the variance with achievement-related beliefs.

Aydin, & Coskun, (2011) have studied the achievement motivation of secondary school students and the relations between the achievement motivation and gender and class level, parent education level and family income level. The results revealed that the students did not show any significant difference according to gender, mother’s education level, father’s education level and family income status.

Ara, (2012) was made an attempt to study the effect of mother’s education and employment on achievement motivation and academic performance of their children. The main objectives of study were to investigate the impact of educated working mother and educated non working on the academic performance of her children, and to compare the academic results of children of working mothers with that of the children of non-working mothers. Stratified random sampling technique was used and 140 students of both mothers were taken as a sample. Besides that, one 140 mothers of selected students were also the part of the sample. Questionnaires were based on
Likert Scale. The academic results showed that children of working mothers had higher mean score than the children of nonworking mothers means score. It was also found that there is no significant difference between working mothers and non-working mothers regarding their official timing effect on the education of their children. The official time does not affect children education due to active management of job and domestic work.

The review of literature in relation to above cited variables reveal that there is dearth of empirical evidence in relation to the maternal employment, psychological health and achievement motivation. Though there are various empirical studies that talk about the comparative analysis of working and non working women but as such as the role of maternal employment (in terms of hours spent in work set-up) is conspicuous.

Taking this perspective in to mind, the present research has been focused on the following objectives:

**OBJECTIVES**

- To assess and compare the level of self concept of adolescents of employed (6, 8, 10+ hours) and unemployed mothers.
- To assess and compare the level of optimism of adolescents of employed (6, 8, 10+ hours) and unemployed mothers.
- To assess and compare the level of happiness of adolescents of employed (6, 8, 10+ hours) and unemployed mothers.
- To assess and compare the level of psychological distress of adolescents of employed (6, 8, 10+ hours) and unemployed mothers.
- To assess and compare the level of achievement motivation of adolescents of employed (6, 8, 10+ hours) and unemployed mothers.
HYPOTHESES

To achieve above objectives in the present research following hypotheses were formulated:-

- The self-concept of adolescents of employed mothers would be higher than the self concept of adolescents of unemployed mothers.

- The happiness of adolescents of employed mothers would be higher than the happiness of adolescents of unemployed mothers.

- The optimism of adolescents of employed mothers would be higher than the optimism of adolescents of unemployed mothers.

- The psychological distress of adolescents of employed mothers would be higher than the psychological distress of adolescents of unemployed mothers.

- The achievement motivation of adolescents of employed mothers would be higher than the achievement motivation of adolescents of unemployed mothers.